

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN.

VOL. IV. Philadelphia, July 15, 1820. No. 3.

Miscellany.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF SCRIPTURE.

From a Review in the Christian Observer of Morier's Second Journey through Persia, &c.

Our first extract will refer to that passage of scripture which represents John the Baptist as subsisting on "locusts and wild honey." The ambassador and his suite lay encamped at Bushire for some days, during which they experienced much inconvenience from the hot currents of air that blew from the southeast with such violence as to level three of their tents with the ground. The effect of this wind in parching and withering vegetables of every kind, is supposed by our traveller, and with great probability, to be pointed at in the image of "corn blasted before it be grown up," (2 Kings, xix. 26.) and in that passage of the Psalms, (ciii. 15, 16.) "The wind passeth over it, (the grass,) and it is gone."

"This southeast wind," Mr. Morier proceeds to remark, "constantly brought with it innumerable flights of locusts; but those which fell on this occasion, we were informed, were not of the predatory sort. They were three inches long from the head to the extremity of the wing, and their body and head of a bright yellow. The locust which destroys vegetation is of a larger kind, and of a deep red. As soon as the wind had subsided, the plain of Bushire was covered by a greater number of its poor inhabitants, men, women, and children, who came out to gather locusts, which they eat. They also dry and salt them, and afterwards sell them in the bazars, as the food of the lowest peasantry. When boiled, the yellow ones turn red, and eat like stale or decayed shrimps. The locusts and wild honey, which St. John ate in the wilderness, are perhaps particularly mentioned to show that he fared as the poorest of men, and not as a wild man, as some might interpret. Indeed, the general appearance of St. John, clothed with camel's hair (rather skin,) with a leathern girdle around his loins, and living a life of the greatest self-denial, was that of the older Jewish prophets, Zach. xiii. 4; and such was the dress of Elijah, the hairy man, with a girdle about his loins, described in 2 Kings, i. 8. At the present moment, however, we see some resemblance of it in the dervishes and *Gousheh nishins*, (or sitters in the corner,) who are so frequently

met with in Persia; a set of men who hold forth their doctrines in open places, sometimes almost naked, with their hair and beard floating wildly about their head, and a piece of camel or deer skin thrown over their shoulders." pp. 43, 44.

Our next extract will be somewhat longer, but we regard the illustrations contained in it as both happy and important. The traveller is speaking of his arrival at a place called Baj-gah, in the way to Persepolis.

"Here," he says, "is a station of *rahdars*, or tollgatherers, appointed to levy a toll upon *ka-filehs* or caravans of merchants; and who, in general, exercise their office with so much brutality and extortion as to be execrated by all travellers. The police of the highways is confided to them; and whenever any goods are stolen, they are meant to be the instruments of restitution; but when they are put to the test, are found to be inefficient: none but a man in power can hope to recover what he has once lost. They afford but little protection to the road, their stations being placed at too wide intervals to be able to communicate quickly; but they generally are perfectly acquainted with the state of the country, and are probably leagued with the thieves themselves, and can thus, if they choose, discover their haunts. Their insolence to travellers is unparalleled; and no man has ever gone through the country, either alone or with a caravan, who has not vented his indignation upon this vile police.

"The collections of the toll are farmed, consequently extortion ensues; and as most of the *rahdars* receive no other emolument than what they can exact over and above the prescribed dues from the traveller, their insolence is accounted for; and a cause sufficiently powerful is given for their insolence on the one hand, and the detestation in which they are held on the other.

"*Baj-gah* means 'the place of tribute:' it may also be rendered, *the receipt of custom*; and perhaps it was from a place like this that our Saviour called Matthew to him; because Matthew appears, from the 3d verse of the 10th chapter, to have been a publican; and publicans, who, in the 11th verse of the 9th chapter, are classed with sinners, appear to have been held in the same odium as are the *rahdars* of Persia.

"It also explains why Matthew, who was seated at the receipt of customs, is afterwards called a publican; and shows that in the choice of his disciples, our Saviour systematically chose them not only from among the poorest and humblest class of men, but also from those who, from their particular situation in life, were hated by all

ranks. Matthew, as a tollgatherer, must, like the rahdars have been a man known to all ranks of people, and detested on account of this profession. When he was seen having *power against unclean spirits*, with power to *heal all manner of sickness and disease*, and following one like our Saviour, his life, when compared with what he formerly was, must have been a constant miracle.

"The parable of the Pharisee and the publican, of the xviiith of Luke, 10th to 13th verse, will be more clearly understood by what has been abovementioned. Our Saviour, in bringing these two characters together, appears to have chosen them as making the strongest contrast between what, in the public estimation, were the extremes of excellence and villany. According to Josephus, the sect of the Pharisees was the most powerful among the Jews; and from what has been said of the rahdars, it may perhaps be explained why the Pharisee, in praying to God, should make 'extortioners' and 'the unjust,' almost synonymous terms with publicans: because we have seen from the peculiar office of the rahdar he is almost an extortioner by profession." pp. 69—71.

On the day a male child is to be weaned, they carry him to the mosque, "in the manner, perhaps, that Hannah took Samuel to the house of the Lord, when she had weaned him." (1 Samuel, i. 24.) "After having performed certain acts of devotion, they return home; and, collecting their friends and relations, they give a feast, of which they make the child also partake. The coincidence with scripture is here remarkable. 'And the child grew and was weaned; and Abraham made a great feast, the same day that Isaac was weaned.' Gen. xxi. 8."

"At Shoolgistoun, we were met by a Turkish tater with despatches from Constantinople; and never was a messenger more welcome, as he brought us news long expected from our country and families. We perceived his delight at meeting us, by the smile that broke out upon his solemn face, which, by the dismal account he gave of his treatment in Persia, had most likely never been cheated out of its gravity. When we asked him how he liked the Persians, he took hold of the collar of his cloak, and shaking it, exclaimed, 'God give them misfortunes! Liars, thieves, rogues! See, I have lost the head of my pipe; they have stolen my pistols. Heaven be praised that I have seen you at last.'

"The shaking of his coat (a very common act in Turkey) is no doubt an act of the same kind and import as that of St. Paul, who, when the Jews opposed themselves and blasphemed, 'shook his raiment.' Acts xviii. 6. An additional mark of reprobation is given in the other instances in which St. Paul and Barnabas shook off the dust of their feet against the Jews. This had been ordered by Christ himself. Mat. x. 14." p. 123.

The next example of coincidence is, perhaps, one of the most striking and in-

structive in the volume. We will give it at length.

"It was fixed that at the end of August the Ameen-ad-Dowlah was to give an entertainment to the ambassador and suite; and on the day appointed, as is usual in Persia, a messenger came to us at about 5 o'clock in the evening to bid us to the feast. I might make use of scriptural language to commence my narration: 'A certain man made a great supper, and bade many: and sent his servant at supper time to say to them that were bidden, Come, for all things are ready.' Luke xiv. 16 and 17. The difficulty which infidels have made to the passage of which this is the commencement, arises from the apparent harshness of asking people to an entertainment, and giving them no option, by punishing them in fact for their refusal. Whereas all the guests to whom when the supper was ready the servant was sent had already accepted the invitation, and were therefore already pledged to appear at the feast, at the hour when they might be summoned. They were not taken unprepared; and could not, in consistency or decency, plead any prior engagement. On alighting at the house, we were conducted through mean and obscure passages to a small square court, surrounded by apartments, which were the habitations of the women, who had been dislodged on the occasion; and as we entered into a low room we there found our host waiting for us, with about a dozen more of his friends. The ambassador was placed in the corner of honour, near the window, and the Ameen-ad-Dowlah next to him, on his left hand. The other guests were arranged around the room according to their respective ranks; amongst whom was an old man, a lineal descendant of the Seffi family, whom they called Nawab, and who took his seat next to the Ameen-ad-Dowlah. Although needy and without power, he is always treated with the greatest respect. He receives a daily sursat, or allowance from the king; which makes his case resemble that of Jehoiachin; for 'his allowance was a continual allowance given him of the king, a daily rate, all the days of his life.' 2 Kings, xxv. 30. This treatment is in the true spirit of Asiatic hospitality. Giving to the Nawab a high rank in society, is illustrative of the precedence given to Jehoiachin, by 'setting his throne above the throne of the kings that were with him in Babylon.' Idem. v. 28.

"When a Persian enters a mejlis, or assembly, after having left his shoes without, he makes the usual salutation of salam aleikum (peace be unto you), which is addressed to the whole assembly, as it were saluting the house (Matt. x. 12); and then measuring with his eye the degree of rank to which he holds himself entitled, he straightway wedges himself into the line of guests, without offering any apology for the general disturbance which he produces. It may be conceived that, among a vain people, the disputes which arise on matters of precedence are numerous; and it was easy to observe, by the countenance of those present, when any one had taken a higher seat than that to which he was entitled. Mollahs, the Persian scribes, are remarkable for their arrogance in this respect; and they will bring to mind the caution that our

Saviour gave to the Jews against their scribes, whom among other things he characterizes as loving 'the uppermost places at feasts.' Mark, xi. 39. The master of the entertainment has, however, the privilege of placing any one as high in the ranks of the mejlis as he may choose, and we saw an instance of it on this occasion; for when the assembly was nearly full, the governor of Kashan, a man of humble mien, although of considerable rank, came in, and had seated himself at the lowest place, when the Ameen-ad-Dowlah, after having testified his particular attentions to him by numerous expressions of welcome, pointed with his hand to an upper seat in the assembly, to which he desired him to move, and which he accordingly did.

"The strong analogy to be discovered here between the manners of the Jews, as described by our Saviour in the first of the parables contained in the 14th chapter of St. Luke, and those of the Persians, must be my best apology for quoting the whole passage at full length, particularly as it will more clearly point out the origin, and more strongly inculcate the moral of that beautiful antithesis with which it closes.—'When thou art bidden of any man to a wedding, sit not down in the highest place, lest a more honourable man than thou be bidden of him, and he that bade thee and him come and say to thee, Give this man place, and thou begin with shame to take the lowest place; but when thou art bidden, go and sit down in the lowest place, that when he that bade thee cometh, he may say unto thee, Friend, go up higher: then shalt thou have worship in the presence of them that sit at meat with thee. For whosoever exalteth himself shall be abased, and he that humbleth himself shall be exalted.'" pp. 142—144.

We shall content ourselves with citing one more illustration from this truly interesting work. A rebel chief, named Mahomed Zemaem Khan, who had risen in arms against the king of Persia, was taken prisoner, and carried before the king.

"When he had reached the camp, the king ordered Mahomed Khan, chief of his camel artillery, to put a mock crown upon the rebel's head, *bazubends* or armlets on his arms, a sword by his side; to mount him upon an ass, with his face towards the tail, and the tail in his hand; then to parade him throughout the camp, and to exclaim, 'This is he who wanted to be the king!' After this was over, and the people had mocked and insulted him, he was led before the king, who called for the Looties, and ordered them to turn him into ridicule, by making him dance and make antics against his will. He then ordered, that whoever chose, might spit in his face. After this he received the bastinado on the soles of his feet, which was administered by the chiefs of the Cajar tribe, and some time after, he had both his eyes put out." p. 351.

"The strong coincidence," adds Mr. Morier, "between these details and the most awfully affecting part of our own scripture history, is a striking illustration of the permanence of eastern manners."

ABBE GREGOIRE.

The ostensible reason for the exclusion of the abbé Gregoire from the chamber of deputies, was of a technical kind, relating to some irregularity in his election; but the real feelings of the deputies, and their personal dislike of the individual, were avowed with no little vehemence and tumult on the occasion. And yet M. Gregoire had no part whatever in the death of that monarch. He proposed, it is true, the abolition of royalty; and, on various occasions, used very unmeasured and unwarrantable language, because he used the language of the day. But he was not present in the assembly when the king was tried and condemned. He was then on a mission at a considerable distance. He wrote a letter, indeed, to the president, expressing his clear opinion of the king's guilt, but yet condemning him not to *die*, but to *live*. He was decidedly adverse to inflicting upon him the punishment of death. It is worth inquiring how it has happened that, under these circumstances, and with so many around him, stained by still deeper shades of criminality, M. Gregoire should have become so generally obnoxious as to be rejected with indignation, and almost with abhorrence, from the chamber of deputies. To us the fact appears not difficult of explanation. In the first place, Gregoire stood forward singly in the defence of Christianity, when proscribed by the almost unanimous voice of his revolutionary associates. His zeal in this hated cause roused the contempt and hatred of many even of his own political party. In the next place, he had been an active, and we may say leading, member in the society of Les Amis des Noirs; and, even during the iron reign of Bonaparte, he ceased not to lift his voice with courage and energy against the slave trade, and against that frightful system of colonial bondage which Bonaparte sought to restore in St. Domingo. He stood long single in this cause also. He became, therefore, the mark for all the arrows of detraction and calumny which the *ex-colons*, (a most powerful and numerous body,) the slave traders of Havre, Bourdeaux, and Nantz, and all their adherents, could direct against him. But more than all this, since the restoration of Louis XVIII. he has exerted himself with extraordinary ability, perseverance, and effect, in opening the eyes of his countrymen to the dangers likely to arise from the re-establishment of the Jesuits, and from the insidious pretensions of the court of Rome to interfere in the affairs

of the Gallican church. He has become, therefore, on this account, particularly obnoxious to the bigoted adherents of the papacy, and above all to that active, insinuating, restless, and unprincipled body the Jesuits, who have spared no pains to blacken his character, and to confirm and increase the prejudices that had been excited against him on other grounds. Had he left the slave traders and Jesuits in peace, we believe that he might have very quietly taken his seat as a legislator. But the friends of the pope's power and pretensions, and the friends also of slavery and the slave trade, dreaded the presence of so powerful and so fearless an antagonist in the chamber of deputies. The periodical work which expresses his sentiments on religious and ecclesiastical subjects had already done so much to defeat the machinations of the court of Rome and its satellites the Jesuits, and to prevent the revival in France of the more gross corruptions of popery, and had so boldly asserted the right of all the members of the Catholic church to the use of the holy scriptures, that the utmost alarm and consternation were naturally enough created by his election, and the utmost efforts were therefore made to nullify it. Those efforts, as might be expected, have proved successful. Whether the decision to which they have led be right, we will not presume to determine. Thus much, however, we feel ourselves bound in common justice and charity to say in behalf of one who, whatever may have been his errors, has, on many grounds, deserved well of his fellow men, but who seems at present to be abandoned by all the world.* [Ch. Obs.

THE PROMPTER—NO. III.

The Fidgets.

This is my text. When a man or woman is very restless, and has many oddities, he or she is said to *fidget*. A man who would not marry, for fear of the expense of a family, but will keep twenty ducks to feed and a dozen cats and dogs to play with, gets the name of an odd old bachelor. In

* The periodical work to which we have alluded above, is entitled "La Cronique Religieuse." It deserves the particular attention of the Christian world at the present moment, being perhaps the first public attempt, since the days of Erasmus, by members of the Roman Catholic church, to expose the errors and corruptions of their own body. The conductors of this work appear to be themselves Jansenists in principle.

truth he has the *fidgets*. The lonely maiden of fifty, whose companions are a pair of monkies, half a dozen puppies or squirrels, and perhaps, for a pretty little pet, a huge bear, or mastiff, is said to *fidget*. A man who is fairly *hyp'd*, and a hystericky woman, are remarkable for fidgets. They are much laughed at for their oddities. But those who think these are the only people who have the fidgets, think wide of the truth. These have only *domestic* fidgets; but the fidgets is a disorder as various in its operations and appearances as a fever. Simple fidgets, in the first stage, is like a slow fever—it is not violent, but sticks fast to the patient. When the disorder rises to what is vulgarly called the *tantrums*, it then resembles the fever and ague. But in the last stages, when it rises to what is called the *blue devils*, it is like an inflammatory or malignant fever. When the violence of the disorder abates, it often becomes of the putrid kind, and the patient is intolerable.

How little do men observe the most obvious things. I know fifty men who are in the last stages of the fidgets, and the bystanders have not found out their disease. The most dangerous kind of fidgets is the *political fidgets*. It begins with universal itching; and the patient is often seen scratching his head and back, as he walks along the streets. Now the itch is said to be occasioned by little animalcules in the skin; so the fidgets, I apprehend, with deference to the faculty, may be occasioned by a vermicular animal in the brain. Why not? The madness of dogs is said to arise from a little worm under the tongue, and the political fidgets in the last stages, resembles the hydrophobia to a tittle. The patient begins with simple scratching; soon he begins to bite and snarl: He then becomes incoherent; and in his last ravings, nothing can be heard but Congress—treason—election—six dollars a day. All the world cries out the man is mad. No such thing! he is only *fidgetty*.

But of all fidgets which have fallen under my observation, the most laughable is the *purse fidgets*. This shows itself in a variety of ways in different professions.—The lawyer when he has this disorder cries, adjournment—continuance—false verdict—my client is wronged—I'll have a new trial. The physician exclaims, poh! talk of incurables! the belly ache—consumption—cancers—come to me in season. The pious parson has the offer of a parish with a salary of one hundred pounds a year—he doubts whether he has a call from hea-

ven—he protracts—he has another offer of one hundred and thirty pounds—his doubts are removed—he sees clearly he has a *call*. Now what is all this but the *purse fidgets*?

But look ye to the merchant for the purse fidgets. Here it shows itself at first by the patient's whispering about *cheap—cheap*—then the patient enters the *church*, or the *lodge*, to secure the custom of the brethren; then he becomes a fanatic in religion; talks with the minister and the deacons; goes to the night meetings; finally the patient begins to rave—here we go—give the lead in cheapness—penny on the shilling—come and see—goods *must* be sold—cut and slash—cheap as dirt—ho, ho, ho! What is this but purse fidgets? When a man bellows and blusters, let us be out of harm's way. A beggar wraps his handkerchief about his leg—he limps wofully while in sight—he gets his penny—but out of sight, he walks as straight as an arrow. When my family go to town a shopping, I tell them to shun *cheap shops*, for the owners have the fidgets—the *purse fidgets*—the worst kind of fidgets. Reputation is dear to us—no man makes himself a fool for *nothing*—he has his views—if he sells one or two articles very cheap, it is ten to one, he'll cheat us in every thing else.

Oxford.—The following subjects are proposed for the Chancellor's Prizes, for the ensuing year, namely:—Latin Verse: Newtoni Systema. English Essay: The Influence of the Drama. Latin Essay: Quænam fuerit Concilii Amphictyonici Constitutio, et quam vim in tuendis Græciæ Libertatibus et in Populorum Moribus formandis habuerit? Sir Roger Newdigate's Prize: For the best Composition in English Verse—The Temple of Diana at Ephesus. [Ch. Obs.]

Germany.—Previously to the year 1805, there were no other establishments for the blind, in Germany and the adjacent states, than the common hospitals; but since that period, several have been organized: one at Vienna, in 1805; one at Berlin, in 1806; one at Prague, in 1807; at Amsterdam, in 1808; at Dresden, in 1809; at Zurich, in 1810; and at Copenhagen, in 1811. The education of the blind, in these institutions, is on the plan of one at Paris, as described in a work of Guillé on the subject. Similar establishments are organizing in Wurtemberg, and in all the chief cities of Bavaria. [Ib.]

Italy.—Sir Humphrey Davy has written from Rome, that of the number of manuscripts found in the ruins of Herculaneum, 88 have been unrolled and are now legible; 319 have been utterly destroyed; and 24 have been given away as presents. It is hoped that from 100 to 120 may yet be saved out of 1265, which remain to be unrolled by means of a chemical operation.

[Ib.]

Ionian Islands.—A university has been lately established at Corfu, by the earl of Guilford, under the auspices of the British government. His lordship, who is appointed chancellor by the Prince Regent, has nominated to the different chairs, Greeks of the first abilities; and his intentions have been seconded, with much effect, by some persons of eminence on the spot. The university of Oxford, in acknowledgment of his lordship's zeal in the promotion of Greek literature, has conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of Civil Law; and, as a further token of the interest taken by that learned body in the success of the measure, it has resolved to present to the Ionian University all such books, printed at the Clarendon press, as may be thought useful to that institution. An Ionian Bible Society has also been recently established, and promises great utility, not only to the Seven Islands, but to every part of Greece and Albania. Among its founders we perceive the names of the president of the Ionian senate, the Greek bishop, and Roman Catholic vicar general, with many of their clergy, &c. [Ib.]

GAS FROM DARTMOOR PEAT.

Amongst other benefits which promise to attend the contemplated improvements on Dartmoor, is a recent discovery, that its peat may be converted into gas, which produces a light not to be excelled, apparently not at all dangerous in its use. This peat is of a black colour, close in texture, and inexhaustible in quantity. A short time since an experiment was tried with it at Prince's Town, in the presence of sir T. Tyrrwhitt, B. Tucker, esq. R. A. Nelson, esq. secretary of the navy board, and many other gentlemen, who were pleased to express their entire confidence in its capability of producing gas, which was found equal in duration of burning to that obtained from a like quantity of coal. The peat after yielding gas, provides excellent coke, which is useful for many purposes in

alchemy, chemistry, handicrafts, cookery, &c. It is to be hoped that this valuable discovery (for which the company are considerably indebted to the experiments of Mr. J. Shillibeer) will not be permitted to sleep, but be soon called into active service, in all the towns lying around the moor, by which great numbers of male and female children of the poor will derive a livelihood in raising peat, whilst it offers an infinitely cheaper mode of lighting the streets than any heretofore presented to the public. The facilities of conveyance by the Plymouth and Dartmoor railway, will render the price of peat but a trifle, and thus tend to circulate it generally, by exportation, wherever required, either for the production of gas and coke, or other purposes.

COLD AND WARM BATHING.

The following directions for the use of the warm and cold bath are extracted from an interesting treatise on the subject, by Dr. Coffin, of Boston.

There is a considerable diversity of opinion respecting the best time for bathing, some preferring the morning, some the forenoon, and others the evening. The best time, however, for bathing, is the hour before dinner; and next to this is undoubtedly before breakfast; when, if there is any deficiency of warmth, the temperature of the body must be raised by any sufficient exercise.

It is always hurtful to bathe soon after taking food; it is, indeed, never advisable to bathe, except when the stomach is empty, or nearly so. After leaving the water, the body should be briskly wiped with a coarse towel, or piece of crash, and immediately covered with clothes sufficient to excite, or preserve, the temperature of health.

After bathing it is well to take a moderate degree of exercise. But the invalid should be careful not to prolong the ride or walk, especially if exposed to the rays of a hot sun, so far as to produce sweating or lassitude; as this would counteract all the refreshment and renovated strength which would otherwise attend the practice.

To bathe every second, or third day, is ordinarily sufficient for all the good purposes of bathing. Daily bathing is not unfrequently found to produce a degree of languor and wasting of the body; but if no other bad effects arise, these symptoms will soon disappear after discontinuing the bath.

The shock of the shower bath is more formidable and unpleasant to most people than that of sea bathing; it has however, several conveniences over the latter. This may be taken on rising from bed, without going from home, or costing any time worth regretting; and the quantity of water and its temperature can be easily adapted to the state of him who receives it. And as its impression is more transient than the effects of sea bathing, it may be used more frequently than the latter.

From what has been said, I would deduce the following rules, by which the practice of cold bathing should be regulated:

1. We are never to enter the cold bath when the temperature of the body is below the standard health; if it is in a few degrees above this, the bathing will be proportionably more grateful and invigorating.

2. We should never remain long in the water; no longer than to secure a vigorous reaction. The common mistake on this point is, not only to remain in the water till the glow of warmth arising from the shock is established, but till it is dissipated by continuing in the water too long, or by returning to it too often.

3. We are to bathe before breakfast, or better before dinner.

4. We are to bathe when the stomach is empty, or nearly so. And

5. We are to bathe every second or third day only—or if our bathing depends on the tide, we may bathe several days in succession, and then omit it as many.

The warm bath could not have been safely recommended, or advantageously used, as a preventive or cure, before the invention of the thermometer, by which when practicable, and not by the feelings of the patient or bather, ought its temperature to be regulated. Where a thermometer cannot be had, the rule should be this: bring the water to the temperature which feels neither hot nor cold to the arm, or some part of the body usually covered, and after entering the bath at this degree of warmth, its heat may be raised to the temperature just mentioned.

Of commencing a course of warm bathing, the first thing to be attended to is the heat of the water. Any bath may be denominated warm, whose heat is sufficient to produce and continue the sensation of warmth, while we are in it.

But there is no one degree of heat that will always produce this effect, because the animal heat of different persons is not always the same, nor the temperature of the same person at all times alike, but varies

with the different states and conditions in which he may be placed.

This fact is very important, though rarely noticed; it is important, because without attending to it we cannot so modify the temperature of the bath as to suit it to particular cases.

Whether the warm bath is, in any given instance, to be grateful, or otherwise, hurtful or beneficial, must depend chiefly on its temperature and duration being properly adjusted to the state of him who bathes. The best temperature for persons in health, is that degree of heat which will produce the most pleasurable sensations.

This degree of heat corresponds, most commonly, to the 93d degree of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

We are, then, to bring the water to the temperature, before we enter the bath, and after being in the water two or three minutes, and attending to our sensations, we are to add hot or cold water, so as to bring the bath to that degree of warmth which is most grateful to our feelings.

It is better to enter the warm bath when it is too cool rather than too warm. If we enter it too warm, we lose the power of judging accurately, by our sensations, of that degree of heat which would be most pleasant at the time, and ultimately most beneficial; whereas, if we enter the bath below the proper temperature, it is easy to correct the only inconvenience that follows from this mistake.

Cases are recorded where the mistake and the injury have arisen from taking the bath at too low a temperature.

The necessity of exercise before and after the warm bath, is every day evinced, where bathing is practised—and must be held as one of those general rules from which there are few exceptions.

Every irregular nervous action to which the human constitution is liable, is known to be influenced by the medium in which we breathe.

The valetudinarian, whose health is tolerable under the mild atmosphere of Italy, or the south of France, passes a miserable season in regions less temperate and more variable.

Hence we can reason on the effects resulting from the repeated and well regulated use of the warm bath on diseased nervous sensations.

A bath of the same degree of heat as the animal temperature of the person using it, will, for a few minutes after immersion, increase that heat very considerably; even if it be five degrees lower than the usual

standard, which is 98 degrees, it will raise the animal heat to 100 degrees.

This proceeds from a cessation of the cooling process of evaporation from the skin, and the augmentation of heat occasioned by the medium in which the body is immersed, added to what is at the same time generated internally.

This fact instructs us to the proper mode of applying the warm bath in a variety of cases, where success depends altogether on the well regulated temperature of the bath, more particularly in nervous affections, in which the most minute attention should be paid to all the symptoms, and to the whole process of cure.

Tiberius is said to have lost his life by an improper use of the bath.

Having spoken of the proper temperature of the warm bath, we may next consider the best time for taking it.

In general, the practice, as mentioned by Plutarch, and others of the Greeks, of using the bath previous to their principal meal, which corresponded in time nearly with our present dining hour, may be considered as preferable to any other.

Our healthy digestion has a very natural connexion with the salutary functions of the skin, and no stimulus can be so natural to it as a well regulated bath, at this particular time of the day; while the restlessness, which it often occasions when used later in the day, will be avoided.

It may sometimes be allowable to take a warm bath before breakfast, and sometimes in the evening, particularly after travelling in hot weather and dusty roads; but on most occasions the forenoon, after the morning meal is digested, is the best part of the day for bathing, whether cold or warm.

The apprehension of being chilled, and of suffering from cold by exposure to the open air, after the warm bath, is not well founded; in numberless instances the usual occupations of life are pursued through the remainder of the day, not only without injury, but with renewed animation and success.

It is true, that in rising from the warm bath, a cool air feels more chilly than the same atmosphere would do, in ascending from the cold bath; and there is a rapid evaporation of heat from the skin, while the body remains uncovered.

This requires, especially where the health is delicate, that the air of the apartment, when we bathe in cold water, should be made pleasantly warm. With this precaution, and suitable clothing, there is no more

danger of going into the cold air from a warm bath, than from a warm bed in a winter's morning. The body is refreshed and invigorated by heat in both cases, and thereby rendered the better able to resist cold.

Whenever I have passed a night without sleep, and been incommoded at the same time with cold, I have always in consequence of this exposure and privation, been the more feeble and chilly the next day; and with this observation I think the general experience of every soldier and physician will accord.

I have taken the warm bath in the warmest and coldest divisions of our year—more with a view to observe its effects on my own health and sensations, than because I have needed its restorative influence at the time; and I can truly say, after bathing in both extremes of weather, that I have been equally and uniformly less sensible of the inconvenience from heat or cold.

I have always felt more light, cheerful and active, and more inclined and better fitted for a full and successful employment of the powers of mind and body.

That the tendency of warm bathing is not to weaken or relax, is sufficiently proved by its exhilarating influence on those in health, as well as by its giving strength in many diseases of debility.

The utility of bathing depends also, in a considerable degree, on the length of time during which we remain in the bath. On this point, a variety of opinions prevail, and there is some difficulty in laying down a general rule.

As the heat of the bath increases that of the person taking it, generally from five to eight degrees beyond its own temperature, if this temperature should be perfectly suited to the circumstances of the case, the pulse becomes regular, and commonly much less frequent.

These circumstances are of considerable importance in determining the proper time of continuing in the bath; for we may be assured, if it should alter the tone of the circulation from a morbid to a natural state, that its ultimate effect will be of a most salutary kind; and even the refreshing feeling it gives, while we are under its direct influence, may be regarded as a warrant of the advantage to be expected.

CONGRESS OF '76.

It may gratify some of our readers to peruse the following very brief notice of the signers of the DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE. It will be

seen, that of numbers of them we have no account; and yet the article is furnished us by a gentleman whose sources of information are as various as those of any person in this vicinity. Of the whole number, one-fifth part were natives of this state. The survivors are only four: John Adams, William Floyd, Charles Carroll, and Thomas Jefferson. [*Worcester Gazette.*]

Delegates from New Hampshire.

Josiah Bartlett—Born at Amesbury, Massachusetts; a physician: previous to the revolution, a member of the legislature, and afterwards chief justice and president of the state of New Hampshire. Died May, 1795, aged 66.

William Whipple—A brigadier-general of the New Hampshire troops, in 1777, afterwards a member of the council, and a judge of the supreme court. Died November, 1785.

Matthew Thornton—Chief justice of the county of Hillsborough, and afterwards a judge of the supreme court. Died June, 1803, aged 88.

Delegates from Massachusetts.

John Hancock—Born at Braintree; president of the provincial legislature, and afterwards president of the national congress, the first governor of Massachusetts after the revolution, first elected in 1780, and again in 1787. Died October, 1793, aged 56.

Samuel Adams—Born at Boston, 1722; secretary of the state, and president of the senate of Massachusetts, elected lieutenant governor in 1789, and governor in 1794. Died Oct. 1802, aged 80.

John Adams—Born at Braintree, October 19, 1735; now living, in his 85th year.

Elbridge Gerry—Born at Marblehead, 1744; a delegate to the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, envoy to France, 1794; governor of Massachusetts, and vice president of the United States. Died Nov. 1814, aged 70.

Robert Treat Paine—Born at Weymouth, 1731; attorney general, judge of the supreme court, and member of the council of Massachusetts. Died May, 1814, aged 83.

Delegates from Rhode Island.

Stephen Hopkins—Born in Providence, 1707; several years governor of the colony, a delegate to the congress at Albany in 1754, chief justice of Rhode Island. Died July, 1785, aged 79.

William Ellery—Born at Newport, 1727; sustained various civil offices previous to the revolution, afterwards commissioner of the loan office, and collector of Newport. Died February, 1820, aged 93.

Delegates from Connecticut.

Roger Sherman—Born at Newton, Massachusetts, 1721; one of the assistants and judge of the supreme court of Connecticut. Member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, representative and senator in Congress. Died July, 1793, aged 72.

Samuel Huntington—Born at Windham; member of the legislature, attorney general, judge of the supreme court, and member of the council of Connecticut, president of Congress in 1779, afterwards lieutenant governor and chief justice, and in 1786 elected governor of Connecticut. Died January, 1796, aged 64.

William Williams—Speaker of the house of

representatives, and member of the council of Connecticut. Died August, 1811, aged 80.

Oliver Wolcott—Elected governor of Connecticut in 1796, and died December, 1797, aged 71.

Delegates from New York.

William Floyd—Now living, in his 87th year.

Philip Livingston—A delegate to the Congress of 1765, and again elected in 1774.

Francis Lewis.

Lewis Morris.

Delegates from New Jersey.

Richard Stockton—A judge, and member of the council of the province. In 1776 he had an equal number of votes on the first balloting for governor of the state with Mr. Livingston, who was subsequently chosen. Died March, 1781.

John Witherspoon—Born in Scotland, 1722; came to America in 1768, and was president of Princeton College from that time until his death, Nov. 1791, aged 73.

Francis Hopkinson—Born in Pennsylvania; judge of the admiralty and of the district court. Died May, 1791.

John Hart.

Abraham Clark.

Delegates from Pennsylvania.

Robert Morris—Born at Manchester, England; superintendent of the finances of the U. States from 1781 to 1785, afterwards a member of the assembly of Pennsylvania, and a delegate to the convention which framed the constitution of the United States. Died May, 1806, aged 72.

Benjamin Rush—Born in Pennsylvania, 1745; physician general of the military hospitals for the middle departments in 1777, member of the convention which framed the state constitution, and treasurer of the mint of the United States; one of the first physicians and medical writers of the age. Died April, 1813, aged 69.

Benjamin Franklin—Born at Boston, Massachusetts, 1706; member of the Congress of 1754, agent for several of the colonies in England, 1757; president of the convention which framed the constitution of Pennsylvania, 1776. The same year he was sent minister to France, and, together with Lee and Deane, formed the treaty of alliance; assisted in forming the treaty of peace with England, 1783; president of the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania, 1785. Died April, 1790, aged 85.

John Morton—Speaker of the assembly of Pennsylvania, 1775; afterwards a judge of the supreme court.

George Clymer—Joint treasurer of the united colonies, with Mr. Hillegas, in 1775; delegate to the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, supervisor of excise for Pennsylvania, 1791; first president of the academy of fine arts at Philadelphia, 1805. Died January, 1813, aged 75.

James Smith—Appointed in 1780 judge of the high court of errors and appeals for Pennsylvania.

George Taylor—Member of the assembly previous to the revolution, and of the committee of correspondence in 1774.

James Wilson—Member of the convention which framed the constitution of the U. States, and of Pennsylvania; appointed in 1791 judge

of the supreme court of the United States; professor of law in the university of Pennsylvania. Died September, 1798.

George Ross—A member of the assembly previous to the revolution; afterwards vice president of the Executive council of Pennsylvania.

Delegates from Delaware.

Cæsar Rodney—Member of the congress of 1765; speaker of the assembly of Delaware, 1774.

George Read—Vice president of the state; judge of the court of appeals in cases of captures by sea; member of the convention which framed the constitution, and senator of the U. States.

Thomas M'Kean—Speaker of the assembly previous to the revolution; member of the convention which framed the constitution of Delaware in 1776, and the first governor of the state; president of Congress in 1781; chief justice and governor of Pennsylvania. Died January, 1817, aged 84.

Delegates from Maryland.

Samuel Chase—Chief justice of the general court of Maryland, and afterwards a judge of the supreme court of the United States. Died June, 1811.

William Paca—Judge of the maritime court of appeals previous to 1782, and was that year elected governor of the state; appointed in 1789 district judge of Maryland. Died 1799.

Thomas Stone—Died October, 1787, aged 44.

Charles Carroll—Now living.

Delegates from Virginia.

George Wythe—Born in Virginia, 1726; speaker of the house of burgesses, and chancellor of the state. Died June, 1806, aged 81.

Richard Henry Lee—President of Congress, 1784; afterwards a senator from Virginia. Died in June, 1794, aged 68.

Thomas Jefferson—Now living.

Benjamin Harrison.

Thomas Nelson—Member of the council, and elected governor of the state in 1781. Died January, 1789.

Francis Lightfoot Lee—Died April, 1797, aged 63.

Carter Braxton.

Delegates from North Carolina.

William Hooper.

Joseph Hewes. Died Nov. 1779.

John Penn.

Delegates from South Carolina.

Edward Rutledge—A member of the council, and elected governor of the state in 1793. Died January, 1800.

Thomas Heyward.

Thomas Lynch.

Arthur Middleton—President of the council of the colony before the revolution.

Delegates from Georgia.

Button Guinnett—President of the council of Georgia. Killed in a duel with general McIntosh, May, 1777.

Lyman Hall—Governor of Georgia, in 1783. Died February, 1791, aged 66.

George Walton—Chief justice of the state; member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States; governor of Georgia, and senator in Congress. Died February, 1804.

MR. JAY.

"Greece repeated with admiration the names of Solon and Lycurgus, with those of Miltiades and Leonidas; Rome gloried as much in the censorship of Cato as in the victories of Pompey; and the Chinese, the ancient people of Asia, so famous for the wisdom of their laws, raise triumphal arches to the magistrates, as to the warriors."

By a separate and secret article of the treaties of 1778 between the United States and France, a right was reserved to Spain to accede to these treaties, with the same privileges and obligations as those of France. In pursuance of this article, in September, 1779, Congress appointed Mr. Jay, then president of that body, minister plenipotentiary to Spain.

The object of this mission was, by forming treaties with Spain similar to those which had been concluded with France, to secure her co-operation and assistance in the establishment of our independence. After encountering a storm which compelled the vessel to seek refuge at Martinique, Mr. Jay arrived at Cadiz in January, 1780.

He immediately despatched Mr. Carmichael, the secretary of legation to Madrid, with a letter to the count Florida Blanca, the Spanish minister for foreign affairs, announcing his arrival at Cadiz, and the object of his mission. After experiencing some delay, he received an answer from the count, inviting him to come to Madrid, but at the same time informing him [notwithstanding Spain was by this time engaged in the war against England] that he could not be publicly received until certain forms, information and other points, were first ascertained. Mr. Jay accordingly proceeded to Madrid. Soon after his arrival there, count Florida Blanca requested Mr. Jay to prepare and send him, for the information of his Catholic Majesty, a memoir, stating the condition and resources of the United States; conformably to which request, Mr. Jay drew up, and delivered to the count, a representation, containing an abstract of the state constitutions, and of the articles of confederation; stating also the number of our people, their unanimity, and resolution to maintain their independence, the number of regular troops, frigates, and private armed vessels; the condition of the militia, including the great body of the people, who were all accustomed to the use of arms, and resolved to defend their country; and concluding with the observation, that with these powerful means of establishing our independence, we were nevertheless in want of arms and ammunition, clothing for our armies, and money to assist us in prosecuting the war.

Owing to the difficulty of collecting requisitions from the several states, and the depreciation of the bills of credit, Congress wisely resolved, towards the close of 1779, that the further issue of paper money should be so limited that the whole sum should not exceed two hundred millions of dollars, and that resort should be had to foreign loans. In addition to the advances made and expected from France, Congress determined to open a loan for one hundred thousand pounds sterling in Holland, and to ask the like sum of Spain.

No notice of this measure was given to Mr. Jay until April, 1780, when he received information thereof, and that bills had been, and would be drawn upon him, at six months sight,

for the sum that it was presumed he would be able to obtain from Spain. Mr. Jay gave immediate notice of this measure to the count Florida Blanca, in the hope that Spain would supply the necessary funds to enable him to accept and pay these drafts.

In the following month of May, count Florida Blanca invited Mr. Jay to a conference with him; in the course of which he spoke openly on two points; first, respecting the bills, concerning which he said, that the king, being well disposed to America, would advance to them from twenty-five to forty thousand pounds sterling, towards the close of the current, or in the beginning of the next year; that Spain had lately suffered great losses, especially in her marine; that her situation resembled that of Tantalus, she having money in abundance in America, but none in Spain; that these considerations would serve to explain the smallness of their advances, but that the king's credit was good, and that the bills drawn upon Mr. Jay by Congress, must be accepted on his majesty's credit.

The second point respected the proposed treaty, concerning which the count observed, that his majesty having formed an opinion relative to the navigation of the Mississippi, the exclusive use whereof he deemed to be of the highest importance to the safety of his American dominions, would have no difficulty in concluding a treaty, provided the same contained a satisfactory provision on this head.

Mr. Jay expressed the difficulty which would be likely to arise from an uncertain and insufficient fund for the payment of the bills which should be drawn upon him; that in affairs of this sort there was but one of two courses, either to pay or refuse payment, giving the reasons for the latter.

In regard to the treaty, and the king's demand of the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi, Mr. Jay stated, that several of the states were bounded by that river, the free navigation of which, to and from the ocean, would become indispensable to the American citizens residing upon its eastern bank, as well as to those who should inhabit the borders of rivers falling from the east into the Mississippi; and he frankly and firmly declared to the count, that the free navigation of this river to and from the ocean, was made by his instructions an ultimatum from which he was not at liberty to depart. The conference was terminated with expressions of mutual civility, and by permission of the count, the purport thereof was communicated by Mr. Jay to the French ambassador at Madrid.

As the bills drawn on Mr. Jay began to make their appearance, he became perplexed respecting their acceptance, from the uncertainty of funds to pay them. He therefore requested the Spanish minister to inform him with precision how much money the Spanish government would advance for this purpose. The count Florida Blanca gave Mr. Jay no satisfactory information on these points, but again authorized him to accept the bills on the king's credit. In these circumstances Mr. Jay explained his situation to Dr. Franklin, who having at his disposition a sum of money received from France, furnished Mr. Jay with a portion of it, to assist him in paying the bills which had been drawn upon him. Spain also advanced to Mr. Jay, for the same

purpose,* one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, informing him at the same time that no further advance would be made to him.

With those means Mr. Jay was able to take up all the bills drawn upon him, except about twenty-five thousand pounds sterling, which sum, he being unable to pay it, he caused to be protested for nonpayment, assigning in the protest as the reason thereof, that he had accepted the bills in the expectation, and on the assurance, that the Spanish government would provide the money to pay them, but that being disappointed in this respect, and unable to apply in season to Congress for money to pay the same, he was obliged to suffer them to be protested for nonpayment. Dr. Franklin having, not long after this transaction, obtained a further loan of money from France, Mr. Jay was authorized by him to draw for a sum sufficient to pay these protested bills; which was accordingly done, and the whole of the bills were thus ultimately paid and taken up.

In the month of May, 1780, sir John Dalrymple came to Madrid from Portugal, giving out that he was bound to England by the way of France, the occasion of a land voyage being the health of his lady, who accompanied him. Not long after his arrival at Madrid, count Florida Blanca communicated to Mr. Jay what sir John called a historical anecdote of lord Rochford. Lord Rochford, who was secretary of state in England a few years before, had conceived the project of a grand confederation between Spain, France, Portugal and England, for three precise objects.

1. A mutual guaranty of all the possessions of each power in America and the two Indies, with a stipulation that war in Europe should not extend to, nor affect those countries, and specifying the number of ships and troops to be furnished by the several confederates.

2. A provision that Spain, France, and Portugal should participate in the trade of the British colonies, reserving certain preferences to the Metropolitan country.

3. The settlement of the disputes between Great Britain and the American colonies.

In support of these propositions, a variety of statements were made, in order to prove it to be the interest of Spain, France and Portugal, to prevent the independence of the United States. To Spain, in particular, it was said, that the United States, if independent, would force a contraband trade with South America, or make war to obtain the precious metals with which the Spanish colonies abounded; that they would take possession of New Zealand, or some of the other islands in the South Sea, enter into alliances with the natives, who were watermen, and forming strong establishments there, would ravage Chili, Peru, and the whole coast of the Pacific. That a right understanding, and the prudent arrangement of commerce would reciprocally promote the trade of each of the confederates; that England produced iron, and in the same fields coals to manufacture it; coarse wool, together with other staples, which she would send to Spain and France, receiving in exchange wine, oil, fruit and fine

cloths. Portugal might receive a satisfactory compensation for the relinquishment of her right to supply England with wines on reduced duties. The colonial commerce might be placed under regulations, and distributed in a manner that would be advantageous to all parties.

In respect to the American disputes, that England had her magna charta, and would give one to America; and to cut this business short, and to save all embarrassment, that it was proposed to give a *carte blanche* to Dr. Franklin, who was one of the greatest geniuses of the age. Sir John said he was unauthorized in making this communication; that lord Rochford, though retired from office, was sanguine respecting this project; that it had been communicated to but few persons, one of whom, the late Spanish ambassador, in England, was delighted with it.

Sir John concluded by saying, that he was intimate with the English ministers, some of whom approved of the project. They were acquainted with his intention to communicate the same to the Spanish ministers, and that he was desirous to learn their way of thinking concerning it.

It does not appear that this project of the English ministry produced a favourable impression on the ministry of Spain. Count Florida Blanca spoke lightly of it, and renewed the assurance of the friendly disposition of his Catholic Majesty towards the Americans. It could not, however, be misunderstood, notwithstanding the urgent representations of France, that Spain was in the beginning disinclined to be drawn into the war with England, and even after she became involved in the war, that she hesitated, and felt anxious concerning the independence of the United States.

Both France and Spain saw, without concern, England embarrassed and weakened by her disputes with these colonies: but neither of them was solicitous to see the United States in possession of territorial or commercial importance—and both were opposed to the extension of their western boundaries, as well as to the establishment of their right in the fisheries and the navigation of the ocean. Each possessed rich and weak colonies in our neighbourhood; and looking into the future, very naturally preferred a policy that would, as they supposed, be least dangerous to this territory.

Amidst the difficulties at home and abroad, with which they were encompassed, our early statesmen manifested, and have left us the most satisfactory evidence of their enlarged and noble views respecting the future destinies of their country: their plans were the conceptions of great men; and considering the little intercourse between the colonies, and the jealousies that were assiduously disseminated among them, the firmness and unanimity with which they pursued their purpose, are deserving of the highest admiration and applause.

But the disastrous progress of the war in the south, joined to the very great embarrassment and distress that were brought upon the whole country, by the depreciation of the paper money, appear in some degree to have shaken the constancy of Congress, which body, in February, 1781, with the view of conciliating, and bringing about a treaty with Spain, *on the motion*

* This sum, with interest, has been repaid to Spain.

of the delegates from Virginia, instructed Mr. Jay to withdraw the demand that Spain should yield to us the free navigation of the Mississippi, and in lieu thereof to offer to his Catholic Majesty the exclusive navigation of that river, and in the same temper, in the following June, the delegates of the same state proposed in the settlement of boundaries, that the river Ohio should be the northwest boundary of the United States; and it is somewhat remarkable, that this proposal to restrict the boundaries of the United States in this important quarter, failed by the opposition to it of the New England states, which voted against the same.

In pursuance of this new instruction, but not before he had received from the count Florida Blanca an intimation of his expectation of a note from him to this effect, Mr. Jay prepared and delivered to the count a note, containing certain propositions, that were to serve as the basis of a treaty of alliance between the United States and Spain; among which was an article stipulating that the United States would relinquish to his Catholic Majesty, and wholly cease from the use of the navigation of the Mississippi, from the point where it leaves the United States, down the same to the ocean; and Spain agreeing to guaranty the territory of the United States, that they would agree to guaranty all the territories of Spain in America—although uninstructed so to do. In making this communication, Mr. Jay stated that these propositions being offered by the United States at a period of embarrassment and distress, were to be considered as of no validity, unless a treaty founded upon the same should be made and concluded between Spain and the United States, before the conclusion of a treaty between them and Great Britain; a precaution which disappointed the views of Spain, and merited, as it afterwards received, the approbation of Congress. As early as September, 1779, Mr. Adams was appointed by Congress to treat of peace and commerce with England. In June, 1781, Messrs. Franklin, Jay, Laurens and Jefferson, were added to the commission to treat with England. In September following, Mr. Jay received information of this appointment, together with a copy of the instructions given to the commissioners. In a letter of this date, written by Mr. Jay to Congress, he acknowledged the receipt of the despatch that informed him of his new appointment, and lamented in a feeling manner, that according to the tenor of the instructions given to the commissioners appointed to treat with England, they were subjected to the control of the French minister, count de Vergennes; that they were free to insist on nothing, except the independence of the United States, and their alliance with France; being, touching boundaries, the fisheries, and every other matter, required to consult the minister of France, whose opinions were to govern the American commissioners, who should speak only as he should give them utterance. Mr. Jay concluded his letter by adding, as nothing in the way of negotiation appeared likely to be done soon, that feeling himself humiliated by instructions, which placed him under the control of a foreign government, he prayed that Congress would excuse him from this service, and appoint some other

person in his place. Towards the end of this year the affairs of the United States became prosperous; the capture of the army of Cornwallis changed the face of things in the southern states. The English parliament in February following, resolved no longer to prosecute an offensive war in America; still Spain not only held back in the negotiation with the United States, and in affording pecuniary assistance to them, but she also persisted in refusing publicly to receive Mr. Jay as their minister.

Dr. Franklin having obtained further loans from France, authorized Mr. Jay to draw on those funds to enable him to take up and pay the bills drawn upon him, and which had been protested; this was accordingly done, and as no further progress could be made in the negotiation with Spain, Mr. Jay having been informed by Dr. Franklin that the negotiation with England was about to be opened at Paris, where his assistance would be required, he gave notice thereof to the Spanish minister, and leaving Mr. Carmichael charged with the affairs of the United States, took his leave of Madrid, and proceeded to Paris.

In the summer of 1782, Congress revoked their instruction, by which Mr. Jay was directed to offer to his Catholic Majesty the cession of the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi; in lieu whereof Mr. Jay was ordered to negotiate with Spain on the principles of the first article of the treaty between the United States and France.

Mr. Jay was informed by the Spanish government that their ambassador, the count D'Aranda, at Paris, was instructed to negotiate with him—but preliminary difficulties appear to have prevented any progress in this business; the count informed Mr. Jay by letter that he was authorized to treat with him, but declined, when required to furnish him with a copy of his powers—the count de Vergennes thought the simple letter of the Spanish ambassador sufficient to authorize Mr. Jay to proceed in the negotiation, and gave it as his opinion to Mr. Jay, that the previous direct or implied recognition of the United States was unnecessary; and that the same might be made to depend upon a general peace. Mr. Jay persisted in requiring a copy of the full powers given to the Spanish ambassador, and declined proceeding to treat without them.

M. de Rayneval, the private secretary of the count de Vergennes, delivered to Mr. Jay a paper in support of the Spanish claim to the navigation of the Mississippi, and to the whole of the countries upon the east bank thereof—Mr. Jay still persisted in his refusal to treat with the count D'Aranda, unless he first received a copy of his powers.

On the arrival of Mr. Oswald, the British commissioner, a like difficulty arose in respect to his powers, which merely authorized him to treat with the colonies, naming them, but not with the United States. The count de Vergennes here again urged the American commissioners to proceed in the negotiation, and to leave the point of independence to be provided for by an article of the treaty of peace. He also caused it to be understood, that France could not support the United States in the projected extension of their boundary to the Mississippi,

nor in their claim to navigate that river—and no pains were taken to conceal the opinion of France, that the United States should be wholly excluded from the fisheries.

It is possible that Dr. Franklin was not so deeply impressed as Mr. Jay appears to have been, with the importance of a preliminary recognition of independence, instead of permitting the same to depend upon, and to derive its validity from the treaty of peace. In the latter case it would have dated from the date of the treaty; in the former it would relate back to the date of the declaration, and confirm all the acts done under it in the course of the war. Be this, however, as it may, Mr. Jay was strenuous, and opposed with decision any negotiation with Spain or England, unless on the previous recognition of the independence of the United States. He explicitly urged his opinion on this subject to Mr. Oswald, and in so forcible a manner, that Mr. Oswald yielded to him, and consented to ask new powers of his government.

About this juncture, the count de Vergennes despatched his secretary, M. de Rayneval, to London; the object of this mission was not communicated to the American commissioners, but suspicions were felt that the views of France and Spain, rather than those of the United States, were to be promoted by it. To countervail M. de Rayneval's mission, Mr. Benjamin Vaughan,* a gentleman of talents, perseverance and zeal, who was attached to Mr. Oswald's mission, after being fully apprized of the difficulties which retarded the negotiation between the English and American commissioners, and of the advantages to both countries which might be derived from a treaty founded upon liberal principles, immediately followed M. de Rayneval to London.

If M. de Rayneval was sent to London to prevent the preliminary recognition of American independence, or to bring about the division of the fisheries between England and France, to the exclusion of the United States, and to effect a partition between England and Spain, of the country northwest of the Ohio, and south thereof, and between the Allegheny mountains and the Mississippi, his mission was frustrated by that of Mr. Vaughan; lord Shelburne having given to Mr. Oswald a new commission, by which he was authorized to treat with the United States, and thereby previously acknowledging their independence, with which Mr. Vaughan speedily returned to Paris.

The negotiation was immediately resumed, and the project of a treaty, consisting only of four articles was agreed to by the commissioners, and transmitted by Mr. Oswald to England for approbation.

The introduction declared the basis of the treaty to be peace, friendship, and a complete reciprocity and community of benefits.

* This excellent man, having with his amiable family removed to this country, has resided for many years on the banks of the Kennebec, in the District of Maine, where, by the practice of those virtues which afford the best consolation of the heart, he has greatly endeared himself to his friends and neighbours.

ART. I. Recognised and treated with the United States as already independent: relinquished all British claims of dominion over them, and established the boundaries of the United States; eastwardly by the river St. John; northerly along the highlands, dividing the waters falling into the Atlantic from those which fall into the river St. Lawrence to Connecticut river; down the same to the forty-fifth degree of latitude, and along that parallel to the west bank of St. Lawrence river; thence in a straight line to the eastern end of Lake Nipising; thence in a straight line to the source of the river Mississippi, and along the middle thereof to the northern boundary of West Florida; thence eastwardly along the northern boundary of West Florida, and the southern boundary of Georgia to the ocean.

ART. II. Provided for the establishment of perpetual peace between the two countries, and for the evacuation of the posts occupied by the British forces within the United States, leaving all American artillery.

ART. III. Recognised a common right of fishery, in all places to which the parties had resorted before the year 1768, with the right to cure fish on the coasts and shores as formerly, in these respects reciprocating all good offices, and making them common.

ART. IV. Provided that the commerce of the two countries should be carried on to and between all the ports of the parties; that British subjects should possess and enjoy all commercial privileges and advantages, and be subject only to the regulations in this respect of American citizens; and, vice versa, that American citizens should possess and enjoy all commercial privileges and advantages, and be subject only to the regulations, in this respect, of British subjects; excepting the rights reserved by charter, to the commercial companies of England; that each should, moreover, enjoy the rights of the most favoured nation, and that the navigation of the river Mississippi, and of the lakes, should be free and common to both.

This treaty was agreed to by the negotiators on the 27th of September, 1782. On the 23d of October following, the same was returned to Paris, by the private secretary of Lord Shelburne, who brought new instructions to Mr. Oswald, and various objections to the treaty; especially to the extent of boundaries, and to the omission of all provisions respecting the Tories. At this period, Mr. Adams, who had just concluded a treaty with Holland, arrived at Paris, and entered fully into, and vigorously supported, the views of Mr. Jay. Mr. Laurens, being released from his imprisonment in the Tower of London, also joined his colleagues at Paris. The negotiation with Mr. Oswald was resumed by the American commissioners, who so far disregarded their instructions, as to carry it on independently of the control of the French ministry. And on the 30th of November, 1782, the provisional articles of peace between the United States and Great Britain were signed; to take effect as soon as a treaty of peace between France and Great Britain should be concluded.

Preliminaries of peace between France and Great Britain were signed on the 20th of January, 1783, and definitive treaties, between Great

Britain and France, and between Great Britain and the United States, were signed on the 3d of September, 1783. [N. Y. American.]

CHRISTIANITY IN THE SOUTH SEAS.

The progress of religion in the newly christianized islands appears to be very satisfactory. At Otaheite reading has become very general, and the natives are diligently engaged in teaching one another. Three thousand copies of St. Luke's Gospel have been printed, and sold for three gallons of cocoa nut oil each copy. Many thousands were greatly disappointed that there were no more for sale; a defect which it is expected will be shortly remedied. Private prayer is supposed to be almost universal, and the instances of real piety numerous. Some peculiar difficulties have, however, arisen out of this new state of things. Not only the social habits and customs of the islanders, but their civil regulations, had been intimately blended with their superstitious rites: when, therefore, idolatry was renounced, and Christianity established in its room, their political and social systems suffered a total derangement. This change affected, more or less, every custom and usage, and extended to almost every affair of life. The missionaries thus found themselves placed in circumstances of peculiar difficulty. They had considered it to be their duty to abstain from interfering in the political and civil concerns of the islands; but now they are applied to, from all quarters, for counsel and direction, not only in moral and religious but in political and civil affairs. Desirous of pursuing their former line of conduct, they had informed the king and the chiefs, that, as their object in residing among them was only to convey to them the knowledge of *the true God, and Jesus Christ whom he hath sent*, they must still decline all direct interposition in their political affairs; but would, at all times, be glad to give them the best advice in their power. A correspondence had accordingly been entered into between the brethren and Pomare, in which they had recommended him to call a general meeting of the principal chiefs; and, with their assistance and concurrence, to adopt such laws as might be adapted to the new state of things, impart stability to his government, and promote the general welfare. On presenting this recommendation, they engaged to furnish such counsel on the several points which should call for their attention, as their acquaintance with the scriptures, and the laws of Britain and other civilized nations, might enable them

to impart. This proposal was by no means agreeable to Pomare; who, having been accustomed to the exercise of arbitrary power, and to be himself at the head of every thing, was unwilling to hazard his authority by a convention of the chiefs. In his answer to the missionaries, he had, however, signified his wish to receive from them whatever information they might be able to give him, on the subject of new laws and regulations; and it appears that his subsequent conduct towards the missionaries had been, in no degree, less friendly since they had ventured to make this unwelcome proposition.

On this last point it is said—

Since the termination of the war, in 1815, which fully restored Pomare to the sovereignty, the attention of the people has been forcibly attracted and variously occupied, by the interesting changes and new avocations which have been consequent on the fall of their idolatry and the subsequent introduction of Christianity: but, when the novelty of these changes has passed away, when the natives shall be generally instructed, when their new customs are become familiar, and their political and civil regulations adapted to the new order of things, a system of regular industry will be absolutely indispensable to the preservation of their religious and moral habits. With this view, the London Missionary Society sent out Mr. John Gyles, in the summer of 1817, on the recommendation of the Rev. Samuel Marsden. Mr. Gyles is to devote himself to the instruction of the natives in the cultivation of the sugar cane, and other indigenous plants of the islands, with the cotton and coffee trees. [Ch. Obs.]

From the Boston Gazette.

PREMIUMS FOR WORKMANSHIP.

Agreeably to custom, that useful and popular institution, the Massachusetts Charitable Mechanic Association, availed themselves of this anniversary, to distribute the *Medals* and *Premiums* offered by them for exhibitions of superior workmanship and genius. We think the occasion happily solicited, as the mechanic arts are one of the first sources of the independence of a nation, and are free from any of the objections which are made to the undue increase of manufactures.

The government judges of premiums, and marshals, having breakfasted with their president, proceeded at an early hour to the Washington Gardens, where the examination of the articles presented was finished, and the awards made. The president then announced, that judges had awarded the medal of the value of twelve dollars to Messrs. Fearing and Emerson, harness makers of this town, for the best specimen of an entire chaise harness, silver plated, and entirely of American workmanship. The

second premium of six dollars was also awarded to these gentlemen.

That a medal of the value of twelve dollars was awarded to Mr. Thomas Burdle, of Boston, for the best made six pannelled door; and that the premium of six dollars was awarded to Mr. Henry Chulbrick, for the next best.

That a medal of the value of twelve dollars was awarded to Mr. Addison Bacon, Hanover street, for the best made pair of chaise wheels; and that a premium of six dollars was awarded to Mr. Oliver Ames, of Norton, for the next best.

That a medal of the value of eight dollars was awarded to William Jordan, (an apprentice of Mr. Daniel Adams) for the best made ship-block, with two sheaves; and that the premium of four dollars was awarded to John B. Ingolls, (an apprentice of Messrs. Dupee and Badger) for the next best.

That a medal of the value of six dollars was awarded to Peter Athern, of Boston, (an apprentice of Mr. David Peeler) for the best made pair of half boots; and the premium of three dollars to Samuel B. Pope, (an apprentice of his father in Quincy) for the second best made pair.

John J. Bickner (an apprentice, of Attleborough,) presented a barrel, for which no premiums have been offered this year; and the government, in consequence of the expense he had incurred by the mistake, directed the treasurer to present him with the sum of seven dollars and seventy-five cents. The medals and premiums were now delivered.

The articles exhibited were mostly of excellent workmanship; and it was only regretted that the specimens were not more numerous, and which we trust they will be, should the premiums be repeated.

Agriculture.



"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

Wilmington, March 20, 1820.

Dear Sir—In consequence of your notice (of my mud burning) in the Agricultural Almanac, I have had repeated applications for information, and a friend of Mr. Rodney's, from the south, having been the first to apply, I have addressed to Mr. Rodney a letter explanatory of my mode and its effects as near as possible, a copy of which

is enclosed. I am, very respectfully, your friend,
JOHN WARNER.
James M. Broome, esq.

ON BURNING OF MUD OR CLAY.

Read 18th April, 1820.

Wilmington, Feb. 1st, 1820.

Dear Sir—In compliance with your request, I communicate, for the information of your friend, the following remarks in relation to the experiments made by me in clay or mud burning.

I commenced mud burning in 1815. During that year I burned about one hundred and seventy cart loads, and about one hundred bushels of oyster shells, in a single heap. The mud was principally blue mud, obtained from the clearing of drains or ditches, being thrown out in the spring upon the edge of the drain, where it remained until harvest, when it had become generally dry throughout. I began the fire or kiln with about one-third of an oak rail, which being completely on fire, I applied to it the lightest and driest mud or tussocks that I could procure. The fire should be kept well covered, and if it burn rapidly and the flame or smoke penetrate through any aperture, it should be covered with fine earth, which confines the heat and causes the mud to burn inwardly. Around and adjoining the first heap, when you are satisfied that it is completely on fire, you should commence three or four other fires, similar to the first, with which they will very soon become connected; and thus you may proceed with small fires around the original heap and on the surface of the ground, until you have disposed of all the mud you intend to burn. This method may be recommended for two reasons:—first, it increases the body of fire below, and thereby prevents the danger of extinguishment, and secondly, it keeps the top of the heap within your reach, which it is necessary to keep pretty heavily dressed. To ascertain how the heap is burning, I carry with me a strong stick or cane, which I run into the heap, and thereby discover the distance from the outside to the ashes; and as it generally happens that one side of the heap burns much more rapidly than the other, it is necessary to dress that side the heaviest. I use no flues to give air, being satisfied that the mud burns much better when the air is excluded.

In the year 1816, I burned six or seven hundred cart loads. A part of this was done in small heaps, on a piece of high marsh overrun with elders: the marsh was plough-

ed about four inches deep, and the surface burned and spread over the same ground. From this experiment I derived little or no benefit, and I am therefore induced to believe that paring and burning are injurious, even where the whole quantity of ashes is spread over the same ground.

During last season, I burned altogether in small heaps of from three to eight cart loads each, which saved the expense of cartage. I prefer this mode for another reason; the process is much more expeditious when the burning is done in small heaps, than in large; in the first case the manure is ready in two or three weeks, in the latter it requires two or three months.

About two bushels of oyster or marine shells may be beneficially burned with each cart load of mud. When this is done, the mud must be in large heaps. After the heap is well on fire, give a very light dressing of shells over the surface of the heap, so as to permit the fire to communicate from below the shells to the dressing of mud above them.

It is proper to state, that wood is only necessary at the commencement of the operation, which requires great care and judgment. When it is once on fire thoroughly, the mud will prove sufficiently combustible to keep the fire alive.

The proper season for burning may be assigned from the first of May until the middle of September, taking care to select a dry time to commence with the heap; after it is fairly in operation, I conceive some rain to be beneficial, as it has a tendency to confine the heat.

Marsh mud of any kind is excellent for burning, and with it every kind of shrubs or roots which are commonly found in a marsh, such as tussocks, elders, &c.; also any species of earth taken from swamps or meadow ground, that is free from sand. Clay of every description makes a strong fire when once commenced. Although I have never tried this species of earth myself, yet in travelling last summer about fifteen miles from this place, I saw a heap containing about one hundred loads of handsome ashes burned from stiff blue clay. This was burned upon Cobbett's plan; and in the same field there were also many small heaps burned upon the plan I have laid down. The owner of the farm was not acquainted with the method of increasing the heaps, which I explained to him, and he expressed his intention of adopting that plan, in order to save fuel, and the expense of building clay walls according to the English practice.

I consider the ashes procured in this way a cheap and valuable manure. The reduction in quantity is about one-third, and I have ascertained in one instance the expense to be about twelve cents a common cart load, allowing the hands employed one dollar a day each, and three dollars a day for two carts and a driver. My crops of wheat from this method of manuring, have been equal if not superior to those dressed with stable or barn yard manure. There should be from forty to fifty cart loads of ashes per acre. I have made an experiment of top dressing meadow ground: the effect it produced was, that the cattle turned into that meadow to graze, would eat the grass of the part manured in this way perfectly bare, before they would touch any other part of the pasture. I have this season about nine acres of wheat manured with mud ashes that promise well. In an adjoining farm, a fair experiment is now making by Mr. John Woolston, who has manured with burned mud about three acres of land, and an equal quantity with stable manure: the remainder of the field is manured with lime, fifty bushels to the acre. There is but little difference visible in the parcels on which the burned mud and stable manure have been put, but their superiority over that which has been limed is very apparent.

Very respectfully your friend,

JOHN WARNER.

C. A. Rodney, esq.

Poetry.

From "Foliage," a collection of poems by
Leigh Hunt.

SONG.

Written to be set to music by Vincent Novello.

WHEN lovely sounds about my ears
Like winds in Eden's tree-tops rise,
And make me, though my spirit hears,
For very luxury close my eyes,
Let none but friends be round about
Who love the soothing joy like me,
That so the charm be felt throughout,
And all be harmony.

And when we reach the close divine,
Then let the hand of her I love
Come with its gentle palm on mine
As soft as snow or lighting dove;
And let, by stealth, that more than friend,
Look sweetness in my opening eyes,
For only so such dreams should end,
Or wake in Paradise.

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.